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*The University of Chicago*

THE LAY ELEMENT  
IN THE INTERMEDIATE UNIT OF  
STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY  
OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND LITERATURE  
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF  
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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BY

THOMAS DUDLEY BROOKS

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Private Edition, Distributed By  
THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO LIBRARIES  
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS

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## PREFACE

The following is a single chapter of a comparative study, made as a part of the New York Rural School Survey, of the intermediate unit in school administration as it has developed in New York and in the other states. Other topics of the comprehensive study are: the evolution of the intermediate unit, the functions of its professional officers, and the selection and remuneration of such officers. There is also a consideration based on other sources than statutes, of the lines of development indicated by current practice in New York.

The sources of fact in the general study are the school laws of the several states, the documents examined being listed on pages 40-42. Statistical data have been taken from reports of the New York district superintendents, and are for the year 1919-1920. Information was also secured by question blanks sent to the several state departments, to the district superintendents, and to the chairmen of the boards of school directors in New York.

The complete study was submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Arts and Literature of the University of Chicago in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Department of Education. The present is the publication of a single chapter as a "representative unit" of the whole in satisfaction of requirements therewith.

August 2, 1921.

T. D. B.



## THE LAY ELEMENT IN THE INTERMEDIATE UNIT OF STATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Amid all the diversity of the state school systems, there is apparent in each the provision of administrative and supervisory school machinery on three rather distinct levels: the local, the state, and one intermediate between them. The school is local in its operations and requires distinctly local machinery. Our American political tendencies cause us to assign to this local unit as many as possible of the functions of school management. At the same time it is a fundamental doctrine that education is a function of the state, exercised primarily for the protection of the state itself. Hence in each state there is a state department of education, charged among other duties with the maintenance of such standards as the state sees fit to enforce.

To secure the co-operation and co-ordination of state and local units, an intermediate unit becomes necessary. It serves the state department as a "medium of communication" for information concerning the law, procedure and practice; for leadership and stimulation; and for effective enforcement of standards.

However, the American people are coming to conceive of certain educational services as imperative which the local unit is unable to render for itself. Expert school supervision is an example of these new demands. Co-operative provision for these through the intermediate unit is a marked feature of school legislation in recent decades.

This dual classification of function as intermediary and co-operative is illuminating in the study of effective organization for such school machinery. It also serves to explain some stages of its evolution.

Cook and Monahan <sup>(1)</sup> conclude that the present office of county superintendent, almost universally a feature of the intermediate unit, evolved from lay boards which were, it seems, clearly intermediate in their character. This evolution is particularly clear in New York, where the substitution of a professional officer for a lay board was effected by laws enacted in 1841 and 1843. <sup>(2)</sup> The transition was in general completed in the reorganization of the school systems of the Southern states which followed the reconstruction period. More recently there has been a decided trend, the extent of which is made apparent in the following pages, to the association of a lay board and a professional officer or staff.

To the writer this evolution is significant. It became evident half a century ago that a layman could not perform the detailed tasks involved in school supervision and management. Hence a single officer was substituted for a lay board. Today the growing conception of the possibili-

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(1) Cook and Monahan: *Rural School Supervision*, pages 7-12.

(2) Laws of New York 1841, chapter 260; Laws of New York 1843, chapter 133.

ties of co-operative service by the intermediate unit and the realization that school supervision involves the formulation of programs and policies lead to the re-injection of lay control for the exercise of larger powers.

It seems an American tendency to employ a professional officer for the performance of rather narrowly limited statutory duties, for rendering service requiring expertness, for executive responsibility, and for expert counsel. On the other hand, for the expression of popular desire, the formulation of policy and program, the exercise of discretionary authority, and the employment and direction of professional experts, the tendency seems to be to provide lay boards. The American people tend to resist, as bureaucratic, the exercise of large authority by a single officer except where his work is closely paralleled by lay control. If this is a true description of the political characteristics of the American people, it is wise that school administration machinery conform to it.

Furthermore, the real authority and responsibility rest with the people. Continued direction of the schools by professional experts without popular participation must produce in the people lessened acquaintance with and interest in the problems of the schools, and lessened ability to deal with them. This reduces the ability to exercise local initiative, to maintain expert management, or even to respond to expert leadership. When the public refuse to follow out a proposed program (to finance a given school activity, for example), it means either mistaken leadership, or an uninformed public, or a financial inability. So far as the provision of a lay board as an element of the intermediate unit indicates popular participation in the functioning of the intermediate unit and secures for it a larger authority, it must be desirable.

This combination of professional service and lay control is the basis on which our unequaled American urban school systems have developed. It is evident in all local units—a trustee, school committee or board of education, and a teacher or a teaching staff. On the state plane in the most fully developed systems, there is a lay board of education and a state superintendent or a state commissioner of education heading a professional staff. From this point of view a canvass of general practice with regard to the composition of the intermediate unit should be worth while.

Under the New England plan the lay element is not lacking. There the local units are the towns, which unite voluntarily or are grouped into supervisory unions by the state departments for the joint employment of school superintendents. The superintendent is in close and constant relationship with the school committee of each town, and provision is also made in most instances for representatives of each of the school committees to compose a joint supervision committee to function co-operatively on the intermediate level.

This joint supervision committee is a feature of the plan in Connecticut and Massachusetts. In Maine the law provides that the superintending school committees of the towns composing the union shall form a joint committee which may be composed of all the committees of each of the



towns, or of one representative from each with the full vote of the town. In New Hampshire the school boards of the several districts composing the union constitute a joint committee which for all the purposes of the union is the agent of each district therein represented. The Vermont law seems less general in its provision of a lay board on the intermediate level, since apparently the boards meet jointly only at the call of the State Commissioner of Education in the case of a vacancy in the union superintendency, when from a list of qualified persons submitted by the Commissioner they elect a superintendent; or in the case complaint is filed against the superintendent by two directors, to pass upon his retention or dismissal.

With this exception the New England plan seems to provide for the union a lay board which functions continuously, and is in a position to formulate and put into execution such a co-operative program as the interests of the schools demand.

The intermediate unit in the county system states may be described as of either the county board type or the county officer type. In some of the states in which a county board is provided, the "county unit" form of administration is adopted, in which almost all of the administration and supervision of the schools of the county are performed by the county board and its professional officer or officers, few of the original functions being left to the district. In other cases the county board serves to furnish a more or less comprehensive program of supervision and to perform such other administrative functions as the local district clearly cannot perform effectively for itself.

Twenty-six states have one or the other of these types of county boards of education, usually known by that name, and referred to in this study as county boards. Washington and California have county boards, part at least of which are teachers, certification of teachers being apparently their chief function. Many of the duties of the Kansas board also suggest a professional membership. Each board exercises some of the functions usual to lay boards, however, and is treated as such here.

In ten states, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Missouri, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah, county boards have been assigned most of the powers formerly held by the local trustees and these systems represent the "county unit" plan. Prior to the enactment of sweeping changes by the 1921 legislature, the Delaware organization had been for several years a very complete example of the county unit plan. As such, the former law is referred to in the following pages when Delaware is mentioned unless it is otherwise stated. The law, as may be seen from the following pages, not only provided an organization which might undertake large co-operative service, but by detailed prescription made many progressive and probably expensive features mandatory. The new law <sup>(1)</sup> is a sweeping abolition of the intermediate unit.

(1) The School Laws of Delaware, as Enacted by the General Assembly, 1921.

Legislation enacted in 1921 in Arizona <sup>(1)</sup> and Oregon <sup>(2)</sup> provides such a plan of school administration, the adoption of which is optional with the counties. References to these states in this study are based on the general laws, which presumably for a time at least will continue to determine practice in these states. The nature of the new laws can be inferred very accurately from the plans of other county unit states.

In general the criteria by which the county unit plan can be distinguished from a purely intermediate unit plan are whether the county board selects teachers for the local schools and holds, erects, maintains, and equips the school houses, though not all of the states named grant the county board all these powers.

Although in these states it is generally provided that, to quote the Alabama statute as an example, "the public schools of the several counties of the state, except those in the incorporated cities and towns, shall be under the immediate direction and control of a county board of education," there is usually also provision for a local school officer to exercise oversight over the property and affords a means of communicating local sentiment concerning the schools.

To quote the Alabama code again, the county board is instructed to

" \* \* \* appoint for every school in the county a discreet, competent and reliable person or persons of mature years, not exceeding three in number, residing near the school house, and having the respect and confidence of the community, to care for the property, and look after the general interests of the school, and to make to the county board of education, through the county superintendent of education, from time to time, reports of the progress and needs of the school, and of the will and sentiment of the people in regard to the school."

Delaware continued a district board of trustees which the county board was required to consult before changing the boundaries of school attendance districts. The Florida law provides that the county board shall appoint one "supervisor" for each school on the recommendation of the patrons, "whose duty it shall be to supervise the work of the schools and report monthly to the county superintendent." The office of local trustee is retained in Kentucky, even under the new law of 1921, which very greatly enlarged the powers of the county board. The parish board in Louisiana "may appoint local school directors and prescribe their duties." In Georgia the county board may or may not provide for the election of district trustees. The Maryland county board of education appoints district boards of trustees and has the power to remove them. This district board has the power to refuse to accept the teacher assigned to their school, but cannot refuse to accept more than two for the same place; and may file written charges against a teacher. It also appoints the janitor, has care of the property, sees that the outbuildings are well kept, and attends to incidental repairs, charging the cost to the county school fund.

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(1) Senate Bill No. 104, 1921.

(2) General Laws of Oregon 1921, chapter 265,

Under the 1921 law by which Missouri adopts the county unit plan the directors of the local districts select their own teachers from an eligible list furnished by the county superintendent, although the teachers are employed and their salaries fixed by the county board. In North Carolina the township committee appoints one man in each school district to look after the school house and property and advise with the committee. Until modified by the 1921 legislation, the Tennessee law provided for a district advisory board which visited and inspected schools, saw that the school house was in good repair and properly equipped, made recommendations to the county board, took the census, might suspend pupils and might order repairs up to the amount of \$10. This local board, along with the county high school board, was abolished at the last legislative session, the functions of both being vested in the county board.

Thus even under a plan where the schools of a county are managed as a unit by a county board, in nine of the eleven states there remains some purely local machinery.

The other sixteen states that have county boards—Arkansas, California, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Mississippi, Montana (an optional plan), Nevada, New Mexico, Ohio, Oregon, South Carolina, Texas, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin—preserve a system of district administration and utilize the county boards for varying purposes of co-operation and control. Among the functions assigned them in various states are the following: (1) formation, alteration and consolidation of school districts; (2) the making of county school budgets and the levying of county school taxes; (3) the apportionment of school funds; (4) the correlation of the schools into a system and the provision of high schools and of larger school opportunity in other ways than a single district can provide; (5) the certification of teachers; (6) the selection of textbooks; (7) the prescription of a course of study; (8) provision of a program of supervision; (9) the administration of compulsory attendance, vaccination requirements, etc.; (10) the hearing of appeals. Another most important item in the description of these boards is their relation to the county superintendent.

In Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Tennessee, and Utah, the county board selects the teachers for each of the schools. The power to fix salary, assign, transfer or dismiss may be generally implied in this, though not always explicitly stated in the codes. In New Mexico, the local directors employ the teachers, subject to the approval of the county board. In North Carolina there is a township board which selects the teachers although the county board determines the salary schedule.

The county boards in Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, New Mexico, Missouri, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Utah hold the title to the school property, purchase or lease sites, and erect, maintain, and equip the school houses in the county. In South

Carolina all building plans must be submitted to the county board for approval.

Probably the most common function of the county board in the several states is the formation, alteration, dissolution, and consolidation of school districts. This power is assigned the county board in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi, Missouri, New Mexico, North Carolina, Ohio, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Wisconsin. Of the states having county boards which do not control district lines, the lack of the power is explained by the fact that in Virginia the magisterial district is the school district, and in Indiana the township; while in California, Iowa, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, Oregon, and Washington the county boards exercise very restricted powers.

It ought not to be thought that this is an unimportant function for the intermediate unit. The impossibility of its exercise by a central state office is apparent. It is equally evident that if all the territory of the state is to be organized into school districts, it cannot be left to the wishes of the residents of the districts themselves. Experience has shown that its exercise by non-educational authorities is almost always without constructive program, along lines of least resistance, and tends to the multiplication of small districts.

Nor can it be assumed that in the states that are generally settled up, the existing district lines can remain unchanged indefinitely. Very evident facts concerning rural population are distinctly to the contrary. In many sections the rural population is decreasing in numbers. With improved farm machinery, fewer people are needed to till the soil, and the attractions of urban life do not fail to draw off the excess population. Changes in the prevailing form of agriculture may make rapid changes in the number of residents in a given farming community, because the new type of farming demands more or fewer people. There is a very general reduction in the size of the American family as compared with two or three generations ago. In a small community with a few families, permanently established, the number of children of school age is not steady through a considerable period of years, but tends to fluctuate, sometimes markedly, with the maturing of families and the coming on of a new generation. It is a common thing to find, as a result of these factors, schools which today have a bare handful of children and which had, twenty-five or thirty years ago, a hundred or more.

Even more important are the effects of changes in school curriculum and school organization. A single teacher cannot administer an eight grade, fully graded course. Her day isn't long enough to hear all the classes. At least two teachers with the complement of children to warrant their employment are necessary to provide a complete elementary school, fully graded. The power to modify district lines continues to be fundamental in school administration, and must be exercised constructively.

**TABLE I.—CO-OPERATIVE FUNCTIONS OF COUNTY BOARDS OF EDUCATION**

Select Teachers	Main- tain and Control Build- ings	Control School District Territory	Formu- late a School Budget	Levy or Cause to be Levied a Tax	Appor- tion Funds	Corre- late Schools (1)	Provide High Schools	Adopt Course of Study	Select Text Books	Provide Addi- tional Super- vision
Ala. Del. Fla. Ga. Ky. La. Md.	Ala. Del. Fla. Ga. Ky. La. Md. Mo. N. C. Tenn. Utah	Ala. Del. Fla. Ga. Ky. La. Md. Mo. N. C. Tenn. Utah	Del. Fla. Ky. La. Md. Mo. Tenn. Utah	Del. Fla. Ky. Md. Mo. Utah		Ala. Del. Fla. Ky.	Ala. Del. Fla. Ga. Ky. La. Mo. Tenn. Utah	Ala. Del. Fla. Md.	Del. Ga. Md. Mo.	Ala. Ga. Ky. La. Md. Mo. Tenn. Utah Ark.
Tenn. Utah		Ark.		Cal.	Ark.	Cal. Kan.	Cal. Miss. Nev. N. Mex. Tex.	Cal. Ohio Tex. Wash.	Ind. Iowa	N. Mex. Ohio Ore. Tex. Wis.
		Miss. N. Mex. Ohio S. C. Tex. Wis.	Mont. Nev. Va.	Mont.	N. Mex. S. C. Tex. Va.	Wash.	Tex.		Wis. (2)	

(1) Implied in several others.

(2) In the event of vote by school directors to provide uniform textbooks for county.

The authority of county boards is sometimes limited by permitting the people of the districts affected to veto a change by a majority vote or petition, or to appeal to the state department. Quite as frequently, however, in recent legislation, there is statutory limitation to guard against making the districts too small. The former Delaware code provided that "the county Board of Education shall not maintain any single room school without the written approval of the State Board of Education which during the last three preceding school years has had an average of less than twelve pupils," and the new code permits the closing of such a school by the State Board of Education.

The Florida law says that "schools shall not be nearer than three miles to each other except for some local reason or necessity." The Louisiana parish board "may not open a school for fewer than ten pupils in average daily attendance, except upon the approval of the State Board of Education." North Carolina makes the restriction triple: the county board may establish no new school in less than three miles of a present one; it may create no new district with less than sixty-five children, unless for some urgent reason; and it may not increase the number of districts existing on January 1, 1919. South Carolina prescribes that the county school board shall "divide the county into convenient school districts of from nine to forty-nine square miles in area." Tennessee requires the county board to suspend any school where the attendance falls below ten.

These provisions, as well as frequent explicit authority to consolidate schools, usually coupled with permissive or mandatory provisions concerning transportation of pupils, show the very general recognition in the several states that the country school must be a larger school to meet modern demands.

In Delaware, Florida, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Virginia, the county board formulates the annual school budget for the county. In Delaware the county board prepared an itemized budget and laid a capitation tax of from \$3.00 to \$6.00 on all voters in the county and a property tax of not to exceed 1 per cent. This budget and proposed tax is submitted, by the state board of education, to the Levy Board of the county, which was directed to levy and collect. The Florida provision is that the county board shall prepare an annual budget, in terms of a tax (from 3 to 7 mills), which "the assessor shall assess." The Kentucky fiscal court must make the levy, between 25c and 50c on each \$100 valuation, of a tax to provide the budget made by the county board. In Maryland the county board, with the advice of the county superintendent, prepares a detailed school budget showing funds needed, estimated receipts from the state, and the necessary local tax, which may not be less than 34c on the \$100 valuation. This tax the county commissioners must levy up to a 40c limit, above which their approval is necessary.

The Missouri board formulates and publishes a budget, with the authority to levy a 40c tax and to submit to the voters such increase in the levy as the budget indicates is necessary. This function is apparently the only one exercised by the Montana board under the 1919 law. The trustees of the subdistrict prepare a budget including all items of operation and maintenance for the ensuing year. From these subdistrict budgets, the county board prepares a budget for the county and certifies it to the county commissioners who levy the necessary tax. Extraordinary expenditures or those for other purposes than operation and maintenance are not included in the budget, but are cared for by a tax on the property of the subdistrict. The county board in Utah likewise has authority to have levied the tax to provide the budget it formulates. The Virginia county board prepares an estimate of the funds needed and submits it to the county board of supervisors, where the taxing authority seems to be lodged. The parish board of Louisiana and the county board of North Carolina are also required to formulate budgets without the authority to levy the corresponding tax. The latter, like the Alabama board, has the authority to initiate a tax election when need for increased funds arises.

Louisiana and South Carolina make the levy of a three mill county school tax obligatory on the county boards, the proceeds of which they apportion among the districts. Arkansas, Kentucky, New Mexico, Texas, and Virginia also charge the county board with the apportionment of state and county school funds to the several districts, a function that is very frequently performed by the county superintendent in other states. In Arkansas, Ohio, Oregon, and Texas the program of activity which the county board is authorized to undertake, including in some instances the salary and expenses of the county superintendent, is paid for from an unapportioned part of the county school fund reserved at the time of apportionment to the districts.

A fourth function frequently assigned to the county board is the correlation of the schools of the county into a system, and the provision of larger school opportunity through high schools, etc. Alabama, Delaware, Florida, Kentucky, Maryland, and Texas empower the county board to "grade and classify," or to "grade and standardize" the schools. The Delaware board is charged also to provide for the transfer of pupils from six-grade to eight-grade schools, and for the admission to high school of those who complete the eighth grade. This provision for elementary school graduation or for admission to high school is explicitly made a duty of the county board in California, Kansas, and Washington. The function is probably implicit in the power to make rules and regulations for the conduct and management of the schools, granted the county boards in Delaware, Georgia, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, North Carolina, and Washington, and in general within the province of county boards in county unit states.

Again the importance and educational character of this function need to be emphasized. It is essentially the co-ordinating of the individual district schools to the end that pupils may, on changing their residence, pass from one to another with a minimum of interruption. It is necessary in order that each school may undertake only such work as it can efficiently do, while the opportunity for more advanced work not only may be constantly available to each pupil but may exert its very real influence in holding pupils in school. Studies in other than rural education indicate that the most important factor in persistence in school is the purpose of the pupil; but if the school system does not make evident to him an open road, he is not likely to form a definite purpose to complete an education.

The necessity for the co-operation of local districts to provide high school advantages has been fruitful of a large volume of educational legislation. Of the many efforts to provide a solution, several are based on the functioning of a county board. In Nevada, the county board has the single duty of providing one or more high schools for pupils residing outside of the city school districts, but for this purpose it is granted what is apparently a full list of powers. When the establishment of a county high school has been authorized, the county board is created and may prepare an annual budget to be raised by taxation, employ teachers and other necessary employees, and is charged with enforcing the state uniform high school course of study.

In California, in addition to legislation permitting cities and strong school districts to provide high schools, technical schools and junior colleges independently, provision is made for the organization of high school districts independent of their component common school districts, and for the consolidation of weak high school districts into stronger "union high school districts." The law contemplates that when such union high school districts include all the territory of the county outside of cities and other school districts maintaining high schools, the high school district shall become a "county high school district," and that the county board of education shall become the trustees of such county high school district and "shall have the same powers and duties in regard thereto, as high school boards of other high school districts." The county board is also authorized to permit common school districts to offer something more than the elementary course.

In connection with the function of classifying schools, the county board in Texas is especially charged with the development of high school facilities, though not permitted to establish high schools outright. It may work on any one of three plans: the consolidation of districts for high school purposes only; the outright consolidation of districts to produce a unit strong enough to maintain high schools; or the negotiation of arrangements between separate school districts by which one provides high school instruction for the pupils of another.



The Mississippi law, under which county agricultural high schools are being established over the state, makes the establishment of such high schools devolve on the county board, although the schools are administered by a separate board of five trustees, two of whom are appointed by the county board. In the New Mexico law, high schools in rural districts are specifically in the list over which the county board shall have "full power and control."

In the case of county unit states, the provision of high schools is implicit apparently in each case. In Alabama the governor, the auditor and the superintendent of education constitute a commission to locate one high school in each county, which after establishment is under the control and direction of the county board but subject to the approval of the above "high school commission." The attorney general of the state has ruled that the county board may make appropriation from funds in its control for the maintenance of these schools. The Delaware board was vested "with all the powers necessary or proper for the control and management of the free public schools." Besides a similar general statement, the Florida county board is required to "establish, when required by patrons, schools of higher grades of instruction, where the advancement and number of pupils require them." The Georgia county boards "may organize one or more manual labor schools on such a plan as will be self-sustaining," and subject to the approval of the state board of education. This provision is either humor of the legislative "joker" variety, or is an astonishing tribute to the ingenuity of the county school boards. Fortunately the code also states that "the Board of Education of any county or municipality shall have the right to establish one or more high schools or junior high schools as in their opinion may be necessary and may be possible through local taxation funds."

The provision of one or more county high schools has been obligatory on the county board in Kentucky, with the option that arrangement might be made instead for the free tuition of county school pupils in existing "high schools of the first class." The new county school law (1920) is silent concerning high schools, but presumably does not repeal the former provision. The Louisiana parish board is given authority to establish such public schools as it may deem necessary, including subject to the sanction of the state board of education one or more high schools. The powers and duties of the Missouri board with regard to high schools are full and explicit. The North Carolina law makes the township the unit for high school purposes, the high schools being under the control of a high school committee appointed by the county board.

The importance placed on the provision of secondary instruction in the Utah plan is indicated by the fact that each portion of a county already organized into a "high school district" was permitted to become a "county school district of the first class." One would infer from the law an effort to simplify school administration by committing to one board,

called a county board, the functions formerly exercised by the dual machinery of common school district and high school district boards. Moreover, the law contains an explicit provision granting the county board power "to establish, locate, and maintain kindergarten schools, common schools consisting of primary and grammar grades, high schools and industrial or manual training schools."

Until 1921, Tennessee had paralleled its county board with a county high school board of education charged with the administration of county high schools, the power to establish which was vested in the county court. By a sweeping simplification of machinery, <sup>(1)</sup> however, the last legislature abolished the county high school board, vested its functions in the county board, and in a second act <sup>(2)</sup> required each county to maintain a first class high school.

Where the effort to provide high school facilities leads to the organization of special high school districts with separate high school boards a dual system of administration develops that is admittedly bad. The co-ordination of the work of elementary and high schools is difficult enough at best. It seems highly desirable that a single intermediate unit be developed capable of exercising all such functions as seem to demand such a unit, including the administration of secondary schools.

Perhaps no function of school administration more fully demands the co-operation of lay and professional officers than the formulation and prescription of a course of study. This is the final expression of educational program and policy, which the people through their representatives should determine, although the embodiment of this program into a detailed curriculum demands the services of a professional expert.

State legislatures have tended to prescribe what must be taught, thus serving to express popular desire. The necessity of entrusting the making of the course of study to some agency which can command the requisite professional experts and the authority to enforce the decisions reached often leads to the prescription of state wide courses of study, or perhaps more frequently to the submission of suggested syllabi by the state departments. Local adaptation is, however, almost equally necessary. Hence the frequency with which this function is entrusted to the intermediate unit, as being near enough the actual work of instruction to know the needed adaptations and supplied with a professional officer prepared to organize a general program into a detailed curriculum.

To prescribe a course of study, usually on the recommendation of the county superintendent, is explicitly made the duty of the county board in Alabama, Delaware, Florida, and Maryland of the county unit states; and of California, Ohio, Texas, and Washington of the states with limited county boards. In a good many cases the statutes are silent on the subject beyond prescribing a list of subjects which shall be taught; in a few instances the power to prescribe the course is conferred on the

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(1) Acts of 1921, Chapter 120. (2) Acts of 1921, Chapter 40.

local trustee; and in some cases, the state department is directed to issue a course that shall be enforced throughout the state. Thus the county boards of South Carolina and Utah are made responsible for the enforcement of the state course of study; and the Nevada county board (with the single function of providing high school facilities) is required to enforce the state high school course of study.

Closely related is the matter of the selection of textbooks—likewise requiring expert professional service, with probably some form of lay sanction. State-wide textbook adoptions are very common, and unlike state-wide courses of study are usually rigidly enforced. Little can be said in favor of state-wide adoptions as a means of securing desirable textbooks. It is argued in their favor that they secure the best books at low prices, that they avoid inconvenience and expense when a pupil moves from one part of the state to another, and that they eliminate political interference of textbook company representatives in the relation of local school boards and superintendents.

Where state adoptions prevail, the enforcement of the use of the prescribed textbooks is frequently made a duty of the county board or the county superintendent. The county boards of Delaware, Georgia, Iowa, Maryland, and Missouri are authorized to select, on the recommendation of the county superintendent, the textbooks to be used in the county. In the case of Delaware the selection was made from a state list and the textbooks were furnished free to the pupils. The Maryland provision is that the county board shall purchase and distribute, on the written recommendation of the county superintendent, textbooks, supplementary readers, school supplies, etc. Provision of free textbooks is optional with the Missouri board. In Iowa, this is the only function of the board, except that it serves as an advisory board to the county superintendent.

The Indiana county board, which consists of the county superintendent, the trustees of the township (which are the local school units) and the chairman of the school trustees of each city and town, seems to have this matter of selection of textbooks as its chief function. It also "considers the general wants and needs of the schools and school property and all matters relating to the purchase of school furniture, books, maps, charts, etc. Change of textbooks (except for cities) and the care and management of township libraries shall be determined by such boards." In Wisconsin, the county convention of school directors may by vote adopt the plan of county uniform textbooks, in which event "it shall be the duty of said school board convention to \* \* \* elect a county board of education," to be composed of five legally qualified teachers of at least five years' experience in teaching or supervision, the sole function of which is to adopt textbooks for the county. This county board of education must not be confused with the Wisconsin "county committee on common schools" which deals with district lines and appoints supervisors.

Less frequently, perhaps, than the county superintendent, the county

boards are charged with the performance of certain duties for the state. Under certain relations between the board and superintendent that will be noted later in detail, such duties are usually incumbent on the board, although performed by the superintendent as its executive officer. Thus in Delaware and Maryland the county board is required to forward reports to the state department. The county board is made responsible for securing the school census in Alabama, Louisiana, Maryland and Utah. A somewhat similar function is that of passing on controversies and disputes, or of passing on appeals, as one of a series of tribunals, which is assigned to the county board in Delaware, Georgia, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and Wisconsin.

In Alabama and South Carolina the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law is made specifically the duty of the board, while in Texas, Kentucky, Missouri, and South Carolina, the boards' relation to the administration of the attendance laws is indicated by the fact that attendance officers are selected by them, as less specific statements seem to authorize the county board to do in other states. The Georgia county board is also required to enforce certain statutory provisions concerning vaccination in connection with school attendance. The provision is also common, as for example in the North Carolina code, that "the county board shall have power and is charged with the duty to enforce the school laws," the regulations of the state department of education being sometimes added.

A dwindling function of the intermediate unit, particularly as far as its lay element is concerned, is the certification of teachers. State certification is becoming common, and even where the issuance of county certificates is still legal, fewer teachers apply for them. Apparently even where the county superintendent is the "executive officer" of the county board, the professional character of the certification of the teaching force is recognized by charging the professional officer rather than the lay board with the duty. South Carolina is an exception. Kansas is another, but although the code does not preclude the appointment of laymen on the board, its functions in general suggest a board of teachers. The California board is charged with examining applicants and issuing certificates, but a majority of the board is required to hold valid certificates. A number of states provide for a distinctly professional board, apart from the county board, to assist the county superintendent in conducting examinations for applicants for both county and state certificates and to grade papers of those who apply for the former.

Of growing importance, perhaps, is the relation of the lay board functioning on the intermediate level to the provision of supervision of classroom instruction. The county is too large a unit for school supervision, in many states at least, unless there is provided a staff of supervisors as opposed to a single officer. Facts secured by inquiry to the state departments and from the codes are assembled in Table II, and indicate the

large discretionary powers of county boards in this matter. For example, in Alabama the county board selects, on the nomination of the county superintendent, "assistant superintendents, supervisors, and such office force as may be necessary." The Kentucky board is empowered to appoint, on the nomination of the county superintendent, supervisory and clerical assistants, including one attendance officer. The county board of Ohio divides the county into "supervision districts," for each of which the presidents of the boards of the component districts elect a supervisor on the nomination of the county superintendent. In the event the presidents of the district boards fail or refuse to elect, the county board appoints a supervisor. The Oregon board has as one of its chief duties to divide the county, except school districts of the first class, into supervisory districts of from 20 to 50 school districts, and to employ supervisors for the several supervisory districts, who are paid out of the general fund of the county. The Texas county board has limited power to appoint assistants to the county superintendent. The Utah board has power to "appoint all \* \* \* officers that in its judgment may be necessary." The Wisconsin committee on common schools appoints "supervising teachers," on nomination of the county superintendent. The committee must appoint one supervising teacher; if the county has more than 125 schools, it may appoint two. The state reimburses the county for the expenditures for the supervising teachers.

Provision through the county board is, of course, only one of the plans in use for providing better supervision. California puts an "emergency and supervision" fund at the disposal of the county superintendent, to be used in part for this purpose. Washington, though it has a county board, is seeking to secure supervision by a bonus for consolidation, and requiring the consolidated districts to employ a superintendent. West Virginia has no county board, and authorizes the joint employment of district supervisors by two or more school districts, somewhat as is done in New England. Pennsylvania and other states with no county board are trying other plans more similar to appointment by a board.

The relation of the county board to the county superintendent as the chief professional officer in the intermediate unit is important, not only as describing one important function of several county boards, but as indicating how the general body of functions will tend to be exercised.

TABLE II.—FACTS CONCERNING SUPERVISORY AND CLERICAL ASSISTANCE FOR COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS AND CORRESPONDING OFFICERS

STATE Conn.	SUPERVISORY ASSTS.		CLERICAL ASSTS.		USUAL AMOUNT
	Basis	Source	Basis	Source	
Maine	Judgment local com.	Local, may be repaid in part by state	Judgment local com.	Same as for supervision	"Generally as needed or requested by Supt."
Mass.			Local standards	Local	No data
N. H.	Judgment state board	State funds	Judgment supervisory union		"Only a few have clerical help"
R. I.					
Ver.	"No. of units"	State Funds	Size of Dist.	State	"Very little"
Ala.	Judgment co. board	Local state supplementary	Judgment co. board	Same as for supervision	"27 out of 67 have el. sup'r; a few, sup'r's of spec'l subjects also; a majority, 1 clerk."
Del.	Statute prescribes	\$1600 for each from state	Statute prescribes	State funds	2 el. sup'r's, 1 att'd'ce officer, 1 clerk, 1 bookkeeper
Fla.	"Amount of inspection of schools"	Gen. County school fund	"Amt. of clerical work"	Gen. county school fund	"From 1 to 3 if any"
Ga.	Judgment co. board	Both state and local	Judgment co. board	Same as for supervision	"In small counties, none; in large, according to need"
Ky.	Judgment co. board	Co. school funds	Judgment co. board	Same as for supervision	
La.	Judgment parish bd.	Current parish school fund	Judgment parish bd.	Same as for supervision	"Half have a rural sch. sup'r; nearly all com. bookkeeper and stenographer"

STATE	SUPERVISORY ASSTS.		CLERICAL ASSTS.		USUAL AMOUNT
	Basis	Source	Basis	Source	
Md.	Statute prescribes 1 pri. sup'r if 100 schools; 1 att'dce officer	½ up to \$2000 from state; excess, gen. co. school levy	Judgment co. bd.; statute prescribes min.	Gen. co. school levy	"One or two supervisors; one attendance officer; 1 stenographer; one or two clerks."
N. C.	Judgment co. board	Co. revenues	Judgment co. board	Same as for supervision	"About one-fourth have sup'rs & one-half, clerical assts."
Tenn.	Judgment co. board	Local	Judgment co. board	Local	"Few counties employ such"
Utah	Judgment co. board	Local	Judgment co. board	Local	"From 1 to 6 or 8 assistants."
Ark.	Judgment co. board	State gen. fund	Judgment co. board	State gen. fund	"Some have one clerk."
Calif.	Statute prescribes	Co. gen. fund	Statute prescribes	Co. gen. fund	"Insufficient always. From none to 10."
Ind.	Judgment co. com'rs	Co. gen. fund	Judgment Co. com'rs	Co. gen. fund	Law reads "an assistant."
Iowa	Bd. of sup'rs may allow deputy	.....	Law allows clerical help	Co. gen. fund	Most have a deputy and some other clerical help
Kan.	.....	.....	No. of teachers	Co. gen. fund	.....
Miss.	Co. tax values	Co. sch. fund	Co. tax values	Co. sch. fund	"Usually one"
Mont.	Statute prescribes 1 for each 75 tchrs	Co. gen. fund	Statute prescribes 1 clk for 50 or more teachers	Co. gen. fund	"16 out of 54 have deputy; 40, clerks; 11, deputy and clerks."
N. Mex.	Judgment of co. board	Local revenue	Judgment of co. board	Local revenue	"Averages \$100 per month."

STATE	SUPERVISORY ASSTS.		CLERICAL ASSTS.		USUAL AMOUNT
	Basis	Source	Basis	Source	
Ohio	Judgment co. board	$\frac{1}{2}$ up to \$750 state; excess local	Judgment co. board		"Generally has a stenographer"
Ore.	Judgment co. bd. min. prescribed	Co. gen. fund	Judgment co. bd. statute fixes in a few counties	Co. gen. fund	"If more than 60 sch. dists., at least 1 rural sup't; sup'v dists. may not be more than 50 sch. dists."
S. C.					
Texas	Judgment co. board	Co. gen. fund	Judgment co. board	Co. gen. fund	"1 deputy who is also attendance officer"
Va.		About $\frac{1}{2}$ state and $\frac{1}{2}$ local	"Amt. of clerical work"	Same as for supervision	"Whole- or half-time stenographer"
Wash.	Judgment co. com'ts if over 100 dists.	Co. gen. fund	Same as for supervision	Co. gen. fund	"One or two assts."
Wis.	Judgment co. bd.; min. prescribed	State revenue	Same as for supervision	State revenue	"50 out of 71 have clerks; each has 1 super'y teacher; 2 if over 125 schools"
Ari.	Statute allows deputy	Co. gen. fund	Judgment bd. of supervisors	Co. gen. fund	Each has an asst. supt. and 2 out of 12 an additional clerk
Col.	Statutory classification of county	Local revenue	Same as for supervision	Local revenue	"Not many more than one"
Idaho	Law permits assts if needed	Co. gen. fund	Same as for supervision	Co. gen. fund	"Usually one assistant."
Ill.	Judgment bd. of sup'rs. who fix sal.	Local	Same as for supervision	Local	"A county truant officer acting as asst. Most have all they need"



STATE	SUPERVISORY ASSTS.		CLERICAL ASSTS.		USUAL AMOUNT
	Basis	Source	Basis	Source	
Mich.	Judgment bd. of sup'rs; min. pre-scribed	Co. fund	Judgment bd. of sup'rs if for more than \$400	Co. fund	"Usually 1 clerk; three have an assistant."
Minn.					
Mo. (1)	None	Local	None	Local	"Very little"
Neb.			Judgment co. commissioners	Local	"In some adequate; in others, none"
N. D.	No. of teachers	Local	No. of teachers	Local	"1 office & 1 field deputy for each 100 schools"
Okl.					
Penn.	Law permits asst. if 150 teachers	\$2500 for each from state; directors may increase	Co. authorized to provide	Co. revenues	
N. J.	Judgment Com'r of Education	State revenue ap-portioned county	Statute prescribes	Co. revenues	"1 clerk; 1 helping tchr; can have attdee officer and medical in-spector if necessary."
S. D.					
W. Va.					
Wyo.	Statute allows deputy	Co. gen. tax	Statute allows deputy	Co. gen. tax	"One deputy or clerk."

(1) Present conditions which the 1921 law changes.

TABLE III.—RELATION OF COUNTY BOARDS AND COUNTY SUPERINTENDENTS

Supt. is appointed by board	Supt. is board's executive officer	Supt. is board's secretary	Supt. is member of board	Supt. is chairman of board	Supt. appoints or nominates board	Board is advisory to supt.
Ala. Del.	Ala.	Ala. Fla. Ga. Ky.				
Ky. La. Md. Mo. N. C.	Ky. Md. Mo. Tenn.	Mo. N. C. Tenn.				
Utah						
Ark.	Ark.	Ark. Cal.	Cal. Ind. Iowa Kan. Miss.	Ind. Iowa Kan. Miss.	Kan. Miss.	Iowa
Ohio	Ohio Tex.	Tex.	N. Mex. Ore. S. C. Va. Wash.	N. Mex. Ore. Wash.	Ore. Wash.	Ore. S. C. Wash.

The county boards in Alabama, Arkansas, Delaware, Kentucky, Louisiana, Missouri, North Carolina, Ohio, and Utah are charged with the responsibility of selecting the county superintendent. In Alabama and Missouri, besides selecting him, they prescribe his duties in addition to those required by law, and fix the amount of his salary. He is described as the secretary and executive officer of the board, is present at all its meetings, but is not allowed to vote. In Arkansas, the county superintendent is elected by the county board "by contract in the same manner as local boards employ teachers," and serves as its secretary and executive officer. The county board of Delaware appointed as its executive officer a county superintendent of schools who served as its secretary. The parish board of Louisiana elects "a superintendent of schools" for a term of four years, whose relations to the board are essentially those of a city superintendent to a city board, thought somewhat more explicitly prescribed by statute. The Maryland county superintendent is appointed by the county board, serves as its executive officer with the right to advise but not to vote. The county superintendent in North Carolina is appointed by the county board, is ex-officio its secretary, and reports to it each month. The Ohio county superintendent is the executive officer of the county board, which appoints him. The Utah county board of education appoints biennially a superintendent of schools, whose work is left largely to their direction.

In some states where the selection of the county superintendent is not

lodged with the county board, his relation to it is still defined in much the same terms. In Florida and Georgia the county superintendent is ex-officio secretary to the county board. He is described as both secretary and executive officer to the board in Tennessee. The Texas county board is required by statute to designate the county superintendent as its secretary and executive officer.

A distinctly different relation is apparent in a number of county board states, in which the county superintendent is a member of the board, and frequently an ex-officio chairman. In such cases, the board's relation to the county superintendent is sometimes described as "advisory." The California board consists of the county superintendent and four members appointed by the county board of supervisors, the superintendent being ex-officio secretary. The county superintendent is a member of the county board in Indiana, is designated by statute as its presiding officer, and is allowed a vote. In Iowa the board is composed of six members and the county superintendent, who is its chairman, and as one of its duties acts as an advisory board to the county superintendent and co-operates with him in formulating plans and regulations. In Kansas, where as noted above the board is chiefly an examining body, the county superintendent is chairman and nominates the other members to the county commissioners, who appoint. He is a member and ex-officio chairman, in Mississippi, where the other members are appointed by him. In New Mexico the county superintendent is a member and ex-officio chairman. The Oregon county superintendent, under the general law, has the same relation, plus the power of appointing the other members who constitute his advisory board. The South Carolina board consists of three members, one of whom must be the county superintendent, and is described as an advisory board with whom he may consult when in doubt as to his official duty. The division superintendent is also a member of the county board in Virginia. In Washington the county superintendent is a member, ex-officio chairman, and appoints the other members. Besides grading the manuscripts of applicants for elementary school diplomas and adopting textbooks, the board functions in assisting the county superintendent in preparing manuals, etc., and in formulating rules and regulations for the schools of the county.

In states in which no county boards of education are provided the functions discussed in the foregoing pages are disposed of (1) by vesting them in the county superintendent as an independent officer, (2) by making no provision for their exercise on a broader scale than the local school district, (3) by enlarging the state school administration to include some of them, and (4) by assigning them to non-educational county boards. The extent to which the first of these possibilities is employed can be made clear only by a detailed study of the functions of the professional officer in the intermediate unit. The limited possibility of the exercise of such functions by the local district, where that district is

merely the territory served by a single one-teacher school, is sufficiently evident. Their exercise by state departments is not only counter to deep seated prejudices of many American communities, but retards by removing occasion the development of an intermediate unit of school administration capable of performing the co-operative service which has been suggested as one of the growing features of such units.

The disadvantages of the exercise of these functions by non-educational boards, such as the board of supervisors or the commissioners' court, are: 1st, that such boards are selected primarily for other duties and hence may possess small fitness for these tasks; 2nd, that, being engrossed in other county business, they may have small interest in school matters, with the result that they exercise these powers over the schools without a careful program and along lines of "least resistance" or political expediency; and 3rd, that the system fails to locate responsibility definitely enough that the people can hold the officers properly accountable.

The following study of the allotment of these powers in New York illustrates these points quite clearly.

The intermediate unit in New York state school administration consists primarily of a professional officer known as the district superintendent of schools, though some of the functions considered above are lodged elsewhere in whole or in part. The territory of this officer, the "supervisory district," consists of from one to nine towns, usually either four or five, lying within a single county. The superintendent is chosen by a special board of school directors, who have no other duty to perform. He is allowed a salary of \$1800 and a traveling and expense account of \$600 by the state, each of which may be supplemented by the county board of supervisors. He works under the direction of the Education Department, the Commissioner of Education having the authority to withhold his salary for neglect of duty, or to remove him from office for cause.

The functions which seem most truly to distinguish the "county unit" and the "district unit" plans of school administration are in New York largely vested in the district officers, although the district superintendent has some part in each. With regard to teacher selection, the authority is clearly placed with the district trustee (275-8, <sup>(1)</sup>) while it is made the duty of the district superintendent "to especially advise trustees relative to the employment of teachers" (395-4). The modification of these and other statutory provisions which result from common practice and indicate a process of evolution in school administration are made a separate study.

The erection and maintenance of school houses does not devolve so

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(1) References in parentheses are to the New York Education Law as amended to July 1, 1920.

completely on the district school officer. Designation of the site is one of the powers of the school district meeting (206-7). The district meeting also votes the tax for erection of the building and the improvement of the site (206-8), in connection with which it probably exercises control over the building plans. However, in general the trustee exercises all the usual prerogatives in connection with providing a school house, furniture, and apparatus, and keeping the same in repair. (275-4, 5, 6, 14, 15, 16). The district superintendent is charged by the law (395-4) with the duty of advising with and counseling trustees in relation to the repair, construction, ventilating, heating and lighting of school houses and improving and adorning the school grounds. He also has the power, presumably as the representative of state authority, to direct the trustees to make alterations and repairs to the school house or outbuildings, not to exceed \$200 in any one year (395-5); or to repair or replace school furniture, not to exceed \$100 in any one year (395-6); or to abate any nuisance in or on the school grounds (395-7); and the added power to condemn a school outright (395-8; 456).

The control of district lines is placed in the hands of the district superintendent. He sees that the records of the boundaries are properly kept, and are complete and correct (395-1); he may organize new districts out of the territory of existing districts (121); he may dissolve one or more school districts and from their territory form a new one, or annex it to another district under his jurisdiction (129); he may alter the boundaries of districts with the written consent of the trustees of the districts affected, or of the board of education in the case of a union free district (123); if the trustees or boards of education refuse their consent, he may file an order making the alteration, and provide a hearing at which, on demand of the trustees concerned, the town supervisor and the town clerk may sit with him and participate in the decision as to whether the order shall be confirmed or vacated (124, 125). In any of these cases his actions are subject to review by the State Commissioner of Education.

The participation of the supervisor and the town clerk in the consideration of the district superintendent's action concerning alterations in school districts is a clear case of a resort to non-educational officers for the exercise of functions of school administration.

There is in New York no budgeting or taxing for school purposes on the intermediate level, except that the county board of supervisors may, in its discretion, supplement the salary paid the district superintendent and lay a tax on the towns composing the supervisory district to provide the necessary money (389-2); and that the town board is required by law to employ an attendance officer and to fix his compensation, "which shall be a town charge" (632-2). So far as the determination of the amounts of these items and the levying of the corresponding tax constitutes the making of a budget, the function is exercised by non-educational officers.

The apportionment of school moneys received from the state is done

by the district superintendent (134; 498), and seems to be purely clerical work, since his distribution to the districts is exactly "as shown by the certificate of the Commissioner of Education to said district superintendent."

Of the correlation of the schools of a supervisory district into a system by determining the scope of work each shall undertake and arranging for the transfer of pupils, nothing is done except by the district meeting, on the initiative of the local officer or the suggestion of the district superintendent. The local trustee can determine what the school shall teach. The state makes large contributions to the maintenance of the school, but it does not assume to limit the work that shall be undertaken to an amount that can be done with a prospect of success. It allows no "academic quota" to a school whose high school work has not been approved (493-1, 2, 3, 4, 5); but it does not thereby deny permission to do academic work. In general the withholding of the "academic quota" tends to control the amount of high school work undertaken, but within the elementary school there is no limitation on the amount a school shall undertake.

The "contract system," however, is apparently well devised to promote the limitation of work by permitting schools with small numbers of advanced pupils to contract for the instruction of such pupils in some larger school and thus make possible more effective work for the lower grades. The decision to take such a step rests with the school district meeting.

The transition of pupils from elementary to academic schools, an important phase of correlation, is administered by the Education Department through the "preliminary examinations," for the local conduct of which the district superintendent is largely responsible.

Little has been done in New York to provide high school opportunities by co-operation or inter-organization of the local districts. Such stronger districts as care to, provide secondary school work. When this work has been approved by the Education Department, they are eligible to receive \$50 annually from the state for each non-resident academic pupil in attendance from a district not maintaining an academic department, or who has completed the course of study prescribed for the school in the district in which he resides. Under certain conditions tuition in excess of the \$50 may be charged, in which case it is a charge on the district from which the pupil comes. In the case of an excess charge, the district may designate the academic school which the pupil must attend, (1) otherwise each pupil attends the academic school of his choice. Although apparently without more explicit authority to do so than is granted in 206-18, some districts have made provision for the transportation of pupils.

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(1) As amended by "An Act to Amend the Education Law, relative to the apportionment of public moneys for the instruction of non-resident academic pupils," 1921.

For several years, the school law has contained provision for the organization of "central high school district" (187 to 189-L), after the plan common in a number of states, notably California, but there is no instance of organization under it. Such a central high school would be administered by a board composed of one of the trustees (or sole trustee) of each component common school district and two representatives appointed by the board of education of each union free school district included. For the purposes of the maintenance of its common school, each component district would continue unchanged, and the machinery for the administration of the secondary school would be superimposed. The composition of the board would be such that a minimum of duplication would result.

As noted above the people have not chosen to employ this plan of providing secondary education. The organization of a high school by an individual district, with the expectation of receiving the quotas for non-resident pupils, is the general situation. Although by this plan the state makes a most generous contribution for affording each pupil high school opportunity, it represents a form of state provision in which many local communities are purely passive, escaping direct support of secondary education for their children and having, even since the recent amendment, no share in directing and controlling it. Further, the system does not establish the relation between elementary and secondary schools that exist in a well organized city school, in which there are mutual adaptations to the end that the pupil's time may be conserved and by which he sees before him a continuous road to high school graduation with the resultant stimulation to aspire to it.

Even more serious, the system does not always produce an adequate number of accessible high schools or guard against an over-supply of weak, inefficient high schools in other sections. A study of the administration of high schools in the New York Rural School Survey shows that a very high per capita cost, inefficient work, and a very limited offering of subjects are all likely to characterize the small high school. New York would undoubtedly do well, while continuing the present large contribution to secondary education from state funds, to develop a unit of school administration which would be capable of regulating the number and character of high schools, and in the control of which all of the communities from which the pupils come would have part.

So far as the certification of teachers continues in New York to be performed by any authority short of the state control, it is made the business of the district superintendent.

The function of prescribing a course of study is lodged with the district trustee, subject to certain statutory provisions concerning content (275-10); and the district superintendent has no power under the statute beyond counseling with the teachers concerning the course of study thus selected (395-2). Syllabi issued by the Education Department undoubt-

edly determine the course of study in practically all cases, not only because of the prestige and authority of the department, but because all grade and preliminary examinations are based on them. Undoubtedly these state courses of study need local adaptation, but it is seriously to be doubted if the district trustees, a lay officer whose term of office in those districts that have only one trustee is a single year, is fitted for the responsibility. New York has other and more urgent needs for an intermediate school unit composed of lay representatives of the local community and an associated professional officer, but such a unit could render real service in the solution of the course of study problem as well.

In the matter of selection of textbooks, the statutes are of less significance than current practice. Legally the district meeting is charged with this highly technical professional function (670-1, 2), except in the single county of St. Lawrence. <sup>(1)</sup> Fortunately it is a power which the people forego. In actual practice, the selection is probably most frequently made by the teacher. The list of textbooks in use in the school of the nearby trading center is for reasons of convenience frequently used in the rural schools. In very small schools, where there are only one or two pupils in a grade, the teacher frequently makes shift with any books of the proper grade that the pupil brings from home. In reading, supplemental books owned by the school lessen the disadvantages of such a course. The office of the district superintendent in this connection is advisory only (395-4), but he evidently can, when he seeks to do so, exert considerable influence. In a few instances, at least, the district superintendents of a county have united in issuing a recommended list with the request that it be followed, and have secured co-operation from the teachers and approval from the public.

Besides the convenience and economy of that part of the public that may move from one district to another, there is a distinct educational advantage in uniformity of textbooks in most subjects in such territory as has the supervision of instruction in common and mingles its students in a common high school. This uniformity New York could secure through the agency of such an intermediate unit as has been described.

The New York plan purports to seek primarily to provide supervision of classroom work. This is the duty of the district superintendent, who has been charged by a former commissioner of education to let the management and financial affairs of the district alone beyond "friendly advice and counsel." <sup>(2)</sup> It can be questioned whether supervision can be wholly efficient apart from administration. Like instruction, which it helps to produce it is the product of administration. But that question aside, does the New York plan lend itself ideally to producing a program of supervision?

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(1) Laws of New York 1913, Chapter 653.

(2) Draper, A. S.: "What Is Expected of District Superintendents," Address, November 28, 1911.



The district superintendent is elected by a board of school directors who function in no other way. They choose a single officer, regardless of the needs of the supervisory district. If the salary fixed by the state is not sufficient to command the services of a man competent to meet the demands of the work, the board of school directors are helpless. Whenever the office is more than an \$1800 position, it is by the decision of the board of county supervisors—distinctly a non-educational board. (491-1, 2). Not even the board of supervisors seem from the law to have explicit authority to equip an office for him, or to employ a clerk, or to supplement his work as a supervisor by employing additional supervisors. The state pays his traveling and office expenses (supplies and clerical help, telephone and telegraph tolls) up to \$600 a year, and the board of supervisors may appropriate funds to pay for "necessary printing and office supplies." (1) If this is inadequate because of the conditions in the district, there is no authority anywhere to increase it. Like county offices in general, his office must be the creation of detailed statutory provisions, with no single power vested with the authority to permit modifications.

This inflexibility in the office is emphasized when one considers the diversity of conditions which confront the district superintendents in the different parts of the state. Some of these differences are involved in the size of the districts. Supervisory districts vary in size from 57 square miles to 1729, and in number of teachers to be supervised from less than 30 to 240 or more. Other important differences effect the character of the work.

Since by statute, the district superintendent is the professional counselor of the administrative officer in each school district, his work is very much affected by the number of school districts to which he is related. Cook and Monahan (2) rate this as one of the chief factors in determining the efficiency with which such an officer can work, and indicate that the ideal is to have the administrative and the supervisory units identical. Table IV shows the differences in this factor—surely sufficient to demand some recognition if there were an authority with power to make adaptation. There is a vast difference between dealing with 17 and 70 different trustees. In more than half of the cases, the difference is relatively small, but it is still important that there be provision for the exceptional cases.

Table V indicates the range of difference in the school population—a range from less than 400 to more than 9300. In one-fourth of the supervisory districts the number of children between five and 18 years of age is 2,140 or more, with 20 supervisory districts containing more than 2,900. The same provision for school supervision that is made in the 40 cases with less than 1,100 children can not be adequate in these.

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(1) County Laws, Section 12, Subdivision 31.

(2) Cook & Monahan; "Rural School Supervision," p. 23.

TABLE IV—SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS COMPOSED OF GIVEN NUMBERS OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS (1)

Number of Districts	REGIONS (2)							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
17	1							1
21-23						1		1
24-26	2							2
27-29						1		1
30-32	3					1		4
33-35	1		1	2				4
36-38	1	1		1	1	3		9
39-41	1	3	1	5		3		13
42-44	1	5	6	8		1	2	23
45-47	2	4	4	14	1	5	1	31
48-50	1	6	5	7	3	2	1	25
51-53	1	7	5	17	2	3	2	37
54-56		3	2	12	3	1	1	22
57-59	1	3	2	4	4	1	4	19
60-62	1	3	3		1	2	2	12
63-65			1		1	1		3
66-68								
69-71							1	1
Total	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Median	39	49.3	49.2	49.1	55	46.5	57	49.8

(1) Data derived from the Abstracts of Trustees' Reports for 1919-1920.  
 (2) Determined on the basis of topography, agricultural pursuits, and population. Region I is suburban or semi-urban districts in the vicinity of New York City and other cities in the center of the state; II, the Hudson and Mohawk valleys; III, the central lakeshore region; IV, southern New York, west of the Catskills; V, the Catskill region; VI, the Adirondacks; and VII, the northern lakeshore section and the St. Lawrence valley.

TABLE V—SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS CONTAINING GIVEN NUMBERS OF CHILDREN 5-18 YEARS OF AGE (1)

Children	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
300-499				1				1
700-899		1	2	7	1	5		16
900-1099		3		12	5	2	1	23
1100-1299		4	2	12	1		3	22
1300-1499		2	5	11	4	4	3	29
1500-1699		2	4	7	1	4	3	21
1700-1899		3	2	7		2	2	16
1900-2099		6	1	2		3		12
2100-2299		4	5	2	1	1	1	14
2300-2499	1		3	4	2	1		11
2500-2699	1	1	2	3		1		8
2700-2899		4	2	1		1		9
2900-3099		1	2	1	1	1	1	6
3100-3299			1					1
3300-3499	1	1						2
3500-3699	1							1
3700-3899	2		1					3
3900-4099	1							1
4300-4499	1							1
4500-4699	2	1						3
4900-5099		1						1
5500-5699	1							1
6100-6299	1							1
7100-7299	1							1
7300-7499	1							1
7700-7899	1							1
9300-9499	1							1
Data Lacking		1						1
Totals	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Median	4500	1966	2100	1355	1350	1530	1500	1619

(1) Data derived from Abstracts of Trustees' Reports, 1919-1920.

TABLE VI—SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS OF GIVEN DENSITY OF SCHOLASTIC POPULATION (1)

Children per Square mile	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
0- .9						1		1
1- 1.9						1		1
2- 2.9				1		2		3
3- 3.9		1	1		3	10		15
4- 4.9		3		6	1	2	1	13
5- 5.9		1		7	5	2	3	18
6- 6.9		3	2	17	2	3	3	30
7- 7.9		1	1	7	3		2	14
8- 8.9		3	2	7	1	1	3	17
9- 9.9		3	4	10	1	1	2	21
10- 10.9		2	2	3		1		8
11- 11.9		2	2	2				6
12- 11.9		3	1	2				6
13- 13.9		3	5	2				10
14- 14.9		2	3	1		1		7
15- 15.9	1	2	1	1				5
16- 16.9			1	2				3
17- 17.9	1	1	3					5
18- 18.9	1		2	2				5
19- 19.9		1						1
20- 20.9		1	1					2
21- 21.9	1	2	1					4
26- 26.9	3							3
30- 30.9	1							1
32- 32.9	1							1
33- 33.9	1							1
37- 37.9	1							1
45- 45.9	1							1
59- 59.9	1							1
73- 73.9	1							1
95- 95.9	1							1
07-107.9	1							1
Data lacking		1						1
Total .....	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Median .....	31.5	11.0	13.2	7.6	5.8	3.8	7.0	8.5

(1) Scholastic population, as in Table V, divided by area of supervisory districts, i. e., aggregate acreage rendered for taxation in the component towns as given in the report of the State Tax Commission for 1918.

TABLE VII—SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS IN WHICH THE TOTAL SCHOOL EXPENDITURES ARE OF GIVEN AMOUNTS (1)

Thousands of Dollars	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
0- 25				1				1
25- 50		2	2	6	2	3	1	16
50- 75		13	6	26	4	9	6	64
75-100		7	13	21	7	8	6	62
100-125		6	5	6	2	1		20
125-150	3	4	3	7	1		1	20
150-175	1	1	2	1		2		7
175-200	1							1
200-225				1		1		2
225-250		1	1					2
250-275	2	1		1				4
300-325	2							2
325-350	1							1
350-375	1							1
500-525	1							1
525-550	1							1
575-600	1							1
600-625	1							1
750-775	1							1
Total .....	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Median (2) .....	312	84	90	77	82	76	75	84

(1) Data derived from Abstracts of Trustees' reports, 1919-1920.

(2) In thousands of dollars.

Table VI shows a variation that also demands adjustment. The traveling expenses of a supervisor in sparsely settled districts will certainly be greater than those of one where the population is dense and the schools larger and close together. His net time for supervision, after deducting time spent on the road, will be greatly reduced. Thickly populated districts can well afford to provide intensive supervision by the use of a staff of specialists covering the same territory. Time and travel costs in thinly settled districts make this plan an impossibility and demand a supervisor who can render assistance to the teacher in any phase of the work. The retention under the New York law of unusually large centers of population (all under 4,500) in the general system of rural school supervision makes the need for adaptability peculiarly acute.

Table VII is closely related to the two immediately preceding. The total of school expenditure in supervisory districts ranges from less than \$25,000 to more than \$750,000. In half the districts these expenditures are less than \$85,000, but in 25 supervisory districts they are \$150,000 or more. It is the function of the district superintendent to advise the local trustees and boards about all the matters which these expenditures represent. If this duty is performed in any adequate way, one would expect that a different type of ability would be demanded in district superintendents where the business interests of the schools assume large proportions, and that provision would need to be made for them to devote larger time to such matters.

Legally the relation of the district superintendent to the strong districts which maintain academic schools is the same as to any other. He is with them, as with the single teacher school, the professional officer responsible for the character of instruction given. Indeed as the only connecting link, except the state's general overhead control, between the small rural schools and the village academic schools which their graduates attend, his relation ought to be very close. The varying extent to which the supervision of academic schools is a phase of the work of the district superintendents is shown in Table VIII. Six district superintendents have no academic schools under their supervision; two have nine with 25½ and 44½ academic teachers reported; another has 13 with a total of 56 academic teachers. In the latter case a complete plan of supervision might well include one specialist devoting much of his time to the supervision of academic schools. But before such obvious suggestions can be put into effect, some educational authority permitted to exercise discretion in enlarging or modifying the provision for school supervision is necessary, as is now done in so many states.

This matter of vesting somewhere short of the legislature the authority to increase or modify the provision for rural school supervision needs to be considered from another viewpoint. How much supervision is needed?

The view is not infrequently expressed that the rural school problem would be solved if a sufficient number of sufficiently well trained teach-

TABLE VIII—DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENTS WHO HAVE SUPERVISION OF GIVEN NUMBERS OF ACADEMIC SCHOOLS (1)

Academic Schools	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
0			3	1	1	1		6
1	1	9	3	7	4	6		31
2		11	6	19	7		1	48
3	3	8	10	25	1	3	2	61
4	4	1	8	10	2	4	4	33
5	2	4	2	6		2	1	17
6	3	1		2	1	1		8
8		1						1
9	2							2
13	1							1
Total	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Number of Academic Schools	85	93	87	202	35	68	44	614

(1) Data derived from Statistical Reports Relating to the Apportionment of Public Money, 1919-1920.

ers were available. The statement comes near being the deadly obvious. But there is every reason to believe that, social conditions remaining about as at present, a large part of the teaching staff in the rural schools will remain as today young girls, relatively untrained, soon to be married. Tenure in a given position will be brief, because of the considerable number of young women who leave the schools each year to be married, many are those who by virtue of a few years' experience have won the right to teach in rather better than average schools. With free competition among the schools of the locality, the vacancies they leave produce a whole series of shifts in position and the process tends to be repeated endlessly. A large improvement in the general level of training and tenure in the rank and file of rural teachers will come slowly indeed.

Many industrial employers face the same situation. Their effort at a solution has been intensive training for a brief period, followed by a system of guidance and training in service that takes into account the deficiencies in the preliminary training of the employees. The parallel with school administration is evident. By utilizing a part of that portion of the teaching staff that has adequate training, experience, and professional vision, supervision can be modified and extended almost at will. When this possibility is considered in connection with the fact that supervision has been all but lacking in the rural schools of many states in the past, it would seem that it is the point of primary attack in any effort to improve rural school conditions.

Tables IX and X give some idea of the amount of supervision the classroom instruction in New York rural schools received in 1919-1920. There are indications that this is somewhat increased since the state has allowed a larger expense account to the district superintendents. Unfortunately the statistical information does not reduce the statements of number of "inspections" as the term is used to the actual unit of supervision. The number of inspections is reported by the principal

teacher, if there be more than one, so that an inspection is thought to mean a visit to a school, whether one or more classrooms are visited. However, since in the great majority of cases, except in the suburban region, the schools are one-teacher schools, the figures are not very misleading.

TABLE IX—SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS IN WHICH THE DISTRICT SUPERINTENDENT MADE CERTAIN AVERAGE NUMBERS OF INSPECTIONS PER SCHOOL DISTRICT (1)

Av. No. Inspections per District	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
.5-.9		1				1		2
1.0-1.4					1	1		2
1.5-1.9	1	7	1	4	7	4	1	25
2.0-2.4	2	7	2	12	4	5	1	33
2.5-2.9	2	7	8	26	2	2	3	50
3.0-3.4	3	5	9	16	2	6		41
3.5-3.9	3	3	5	8		3	2	24
4.0-4.4	1	3	4	3		2	3	16
4.5-4.9	1	2	2	1				6
5.0-5.4	1		1			1	2	5
5.5-5.9	1						1	1
6.0-6.4								1
6.5-6.9								
7.0-7.4	1						1	2
Total	16	35	32	70	16	25	14	208
Median	3.5	2.7	3.3	2.9	2.0	2.9	4.0	2.9

(1) Data derived from Abstracts of Trustees' Reports, 1919-1920.

TABLE X—TOTAL NUMBER OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN THE SUPERVISORY DISTRICTS IN WHICH THE AVERAGE NUMBER OF INSPECTIONS WAS LESS THAN 1, LESS THAN 2, LESS THAN 3, ETC. (1)

Average No. of Inspections	REGIONS							Total
	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	
Less than 1		61				46		107
Less than 2	51	391	56	206	451	293	71	1519
Less than 3	241	1148	568	2125	752	656	267	5557
Less than 4	436	1508	1262	3232	857	1024	381	8700
Less than 5	504	1732	1523	3420	857	1110	550	9696
Less than 6	590	1732	1570	3420	857	1132	656	9957
6 or more	17						117	134

(1) Data derived from Abstracts of Trustees' Reports, 1919-1920.

Table IX shows that two district superintendents did not succeed in visiting each of their schools in the course of the year; the average in these cases was less than one visit per school district. Two other superintendents did not get half around the second time. In 25 supervisory districts the average was less than two. In half the supervisory districts of the state, the superintendents visited their schools less than three times on the average. In only 16 districts was the average number of inspections as many as 4.5, or one visit in two months.

Table X presents the same facts in terms of the number of school districts for which the several averages apply. There were 107 school districts in the supervisory districts where the superintendents' inspections

averaged less than one per district. Only 134 school districts received supervisory visits as often on the average as once in six weeks.

How New York compares with other states in this regard can be only roughly estimated from the data available. (See last column of Table II, page 20 ff). It should be remembered that the provision of clerical help frees the superintendent for supervision, and that in general the classroom is the unit to be considered. It is also evident that a single supervisory assistant freed from the miscellaneous duties that devolve upon a single officer will more than double the amount of actual supervision that can be accomplished. Taking these facts into consideration, it would seem that several states have made more effective provision for rural school supervision than has New York. Certainly a large number of states has made the program subject to enlargement in response to need and popular understanding of the problem. Its failure to do this is perhaps the greatest weakness of the New York plan.

Other factors to be considered are the matters of the length of these visits and the attitude of the supervisor in his work. From weekly reports of some of the district superintendents, it is evident that at certain seasons of the year particularly their visits are very brief—frequently as many as six or seven in a day. With the time for travel considered, the actual visit must be very brief indeed. The same reports make it clear that some of the visits are purely "inspections," the term the New York superintendent always uses in his reports. He calls, checks up the attendance as shown by the teacher's register, sees that the register is being properly kept, inspects the building, outhouses and library, frequently delivers to the teacher bulletins or manual sent out from the state department, and hurries on to the next school. Not all his visits are like this, but part of those that make up the average just considered certainly are.

Besides the matter of approving a course of study and the selection of textbooks, two or three other matters of a purely administrative nature seem in New York to demand the attention of a more fully developed intermediate unit. The law now provides for the appointment of an attendance officer for each town by the town board, which is composed of the supervisor, three justices, and the town clerk. This board also fixes his compensation. The appointment is, however, subject to the written approval of the district superintendent, and the officer is removable by him. (632-3).

The supervision of the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law is a large part of the work of the district superintendent, and his relation to the attendance officer should be clearly that of a chief to a subordinate. This relation would be more easily maintained if, instead of merely exercising a veto power, the district superintendent nominated the officer and some educational board approved the nomination. More serious is the intervention of a non-educational board in this important function of school administration. New York educational authorities

have been foremost in insisting that educational administrative machinery must be separate and distinct from local political machinery. This doctrine the courts have sustained with reference to urban school administration in more than one instance. To quote a recent utterance of Acting Commissioner Frank B. Gilbert <sup>(1)</sup> will indicate the spirit and scope of the doctrine.

"The people's cause of public education will be best served by holding fast to the sound educational doctrines that our public schools are state institutions established by the state, and maintained jointly by the state and the school districts, as a separate political subdivision, for state purposes. The application of this doctrine demands the recognition of boards of education as state agencies. The proper exercise of their official functions demands that they have the exclusive power to determine educational policies, and to fix the amount which will be expended, reasonably, for school administration. They should be held responsible to the people for any failure to provide the facilities which are requisite for the children's instruction and they must account to them for extravagant and useless expenditures and for lack of economy and evils of administration."

The application of this principle to the rural school administration has never been made with completeness, as the foregoing pages show. To apply it, it would be necessary to institute a system of school administration complete enough to provide for the appointment of attendance officers by an educational authority; to assign to the same authority the large control over the district superintendent's salary now possessed by the board of supervisors; and to remove from the supervisor and the town clerk possibly to the same authority the hearing of protested cases in changes in school district territory. The present allotment of these functions is undoubtedly determined by the lack of school administration machinery capable of dealing with them. They would all belong naturally to a fully developed intermediate unit.

Another administrative matter demanding the services of such a unit is that of medical inspection and health work. At present provision for this is made by the trustee of each local district acting independently (310-21). As shown by the study of medical inspection made in the Rural School Survey, there is great diversity of cost and service. Economy and efficiency would undoubtedly be promoted, and more consistent results secured if some educational authority acting for all the school districts of a town or a supervisory district made arrangement for this work, remuneration and service to be consistent throughout the territory.

New York's recent effort to make physical education available for all of the children of the state has been most ambitious and worthy. It ought to have succeeded. The law was so amended in 1920, however, as to make it the duty of the regular classroom teacher to give the instruction in schools of fewer than ten teachers; and by a second amendment

(1) Gilbert, Frank B.: "Financial Independence of Boards of Education," an address before the Association of School Boards and Trustees, Auburn, N. Y., January 23, 1920. (Pamphlet, University of New York).



in 1921, in schools of fewer than 20 teachers. Prior to the 1920 amendment, the law was put into effect by the joint employment of a physical education teacher by the local school districts. It was an exceedingly inconvenient procedure, by which the district superintendent had to carry a contract around to all of the trustees concerned for signatures and agreement to the proportion of cost, etc., with the possibility that any trustee who chose to be hard to please could delay the procedure greatly and all but defeat the program. If there had been a supervisory district board to which the administration of the law might have been entrusted, the probabilities of success would have been greater. At present, there is need for intensive supervision of the work done by the regular teachers in physical education, whose preparation has been limited in most cases to attendance on a few physical education conferences. Indeed, new subjects are introduced into the curriculum quite as easily and frequently by provision of special supervision—including guidance and training in service—as by the use of special instructors.

The hearing of appeals, one of the functions frequently assigned the intermediate unit as a link in the system of school administration, is to the extent of taking testimony and assembling evidence, a function of the district superintendent.

To the writer, this review of New York practice with regard to the functions frequently exercised by a lay board with an associated professional officer on the intermediate level clearly indicates a need for such administrative machinery. Some agency must systematize and correlate the schools, provide high school opportunity and adequate supervision, and administer newer educational activities which the local district cannot deal with effectively. New York must choose between seeing the state department exercise a larger power, and control an increasing number of matters of school administration; and providing semi-local administrative machinery fitted to perform these tasks.

## PUBLICATIONS TO WHICH CITATIONS ARE MADE

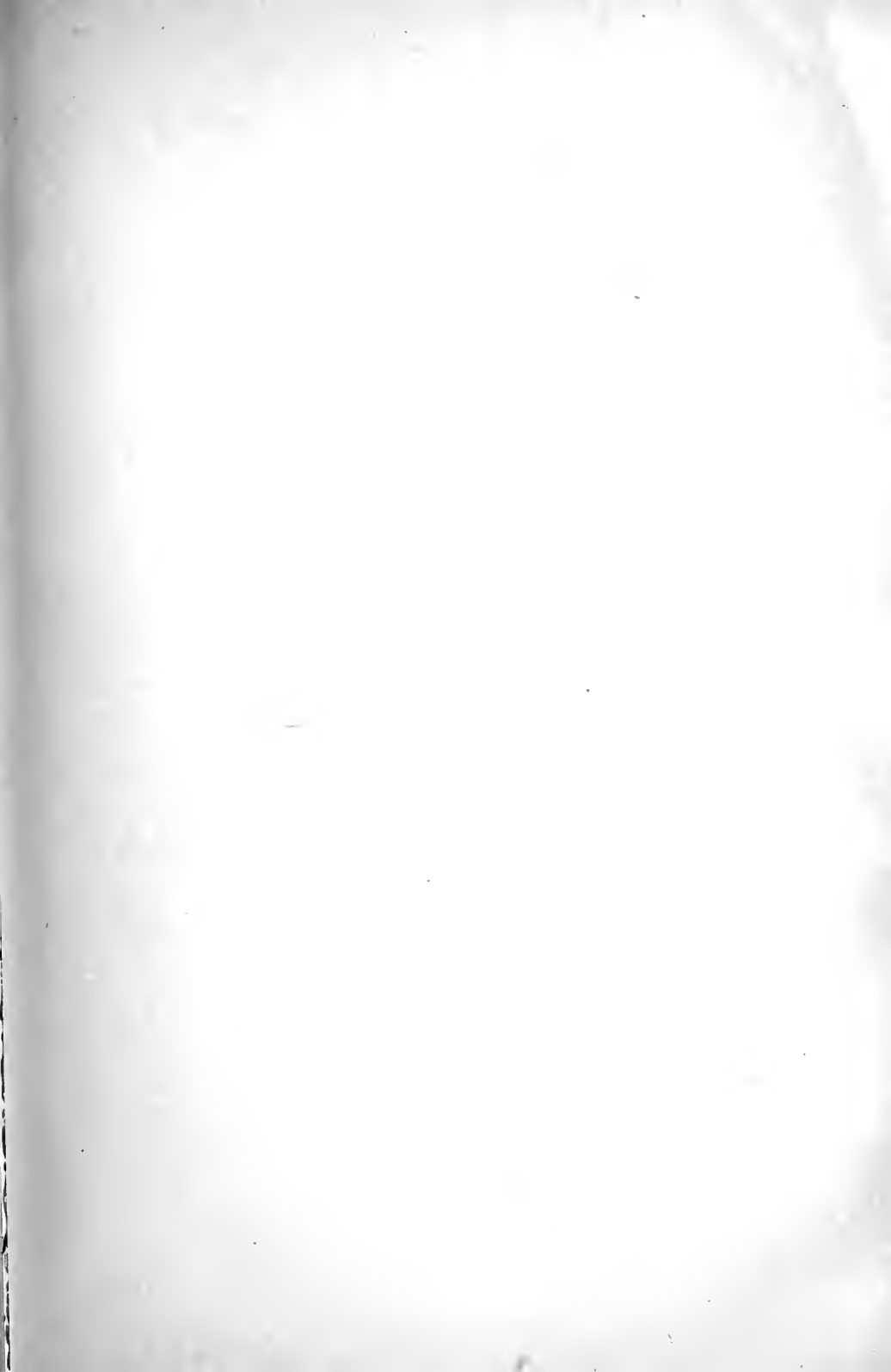
- Cook, Katherine M., and Monahan, A. C.: Rural School Supervision. U. S. Bureau of Education: Bulletin, 1916, No. 48.
- Draper, A. S.: What Is Expected of District Superintendents, in "Addresses before the Rural Education Association of New York State Teachers' Association, Albany, November 28, 1911." Albany, New York State Education Department, 1912.
- Gilbert, Frank B.: Financial Independence of Boards of Education, an address before the Association of School Boards and Trustees, at Auburn, N. Y., January 23, 1920. Pamphlet, University of New York.

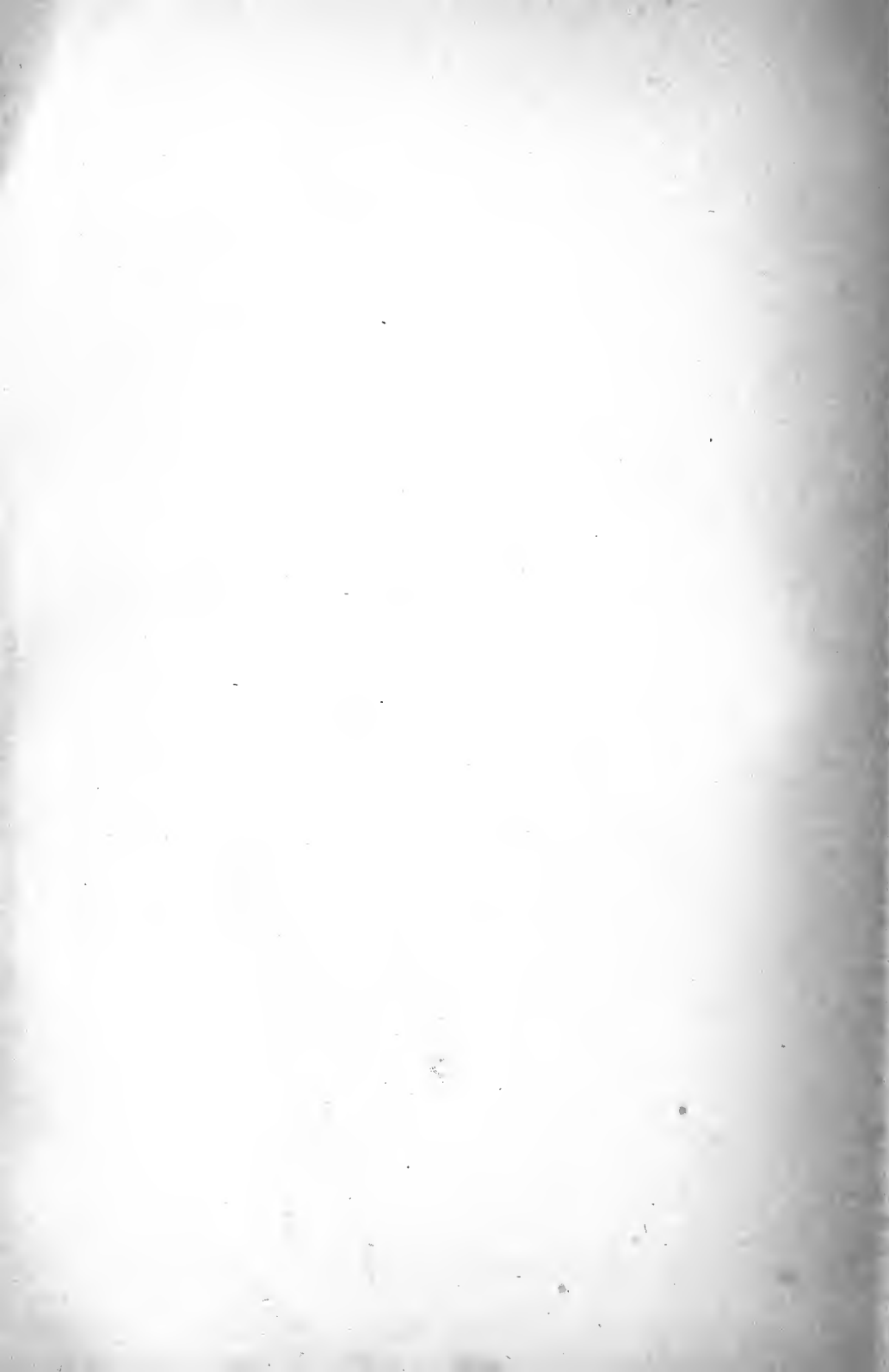
## SCHOOL CODES, COMPILATIONS OF SCHOOL LAWS, SUPPLEMENTS TO SUCH PUBLICATIONS AND SEPARATE LAWS EXAMINED.

- Alabama—General Public School Laws, March 1, 1919. State Department of Education.
- Arizona—The School Laws of Arizona, 1919. C. O. Case, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Arizona—Senate Bill No. 104, 1921. An Act to provide for county educational organization, county boards of education, and county school officers.
- Arkansas—Digest of Laws Relating to Free Schools in the State of Arkansas, 1920. Department of Public Instruction.
- California—School Law of California, 1919. Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- California—Senate Bill No. 310, 1921. An act to amend sections \* \* \* of the Political Code of the State of California relating to schools and school revenues.
- Colorado—The School Laws Annotated of the State of Colorado, as amended to date, June 30, 1917. Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Colorado—Educational Laws Passed by the Twenty-second General Assembly, 1919. Mary C. C. Bradford, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Connecticut—Laws Relating to Schools Passed at the 1917 Session of the General Assembly, 1917. Connecticut School Document No. 8, 1917 (Whole No. 417).
- Connecticut—Laws Relating to Schools, 1920. Connecticut School Document No. 3, 1920. (Whole No. 439).
- Delaware—Delaware School Code, 1920. By authority of the Secretary of State.
- Delaware—The School Laws of Delaware as Enacted by the General Assembly, 1921. An act to provide for the establishment and maintenance of a general and efficient system of free public schools.
- Georgia—Georgia School Code, 1919. Department of Education, M. L. Brittain, State Superintendent of Schools.
- Florida—Digest of the School Laws of the State of Florida, 1915. Compiled by W. N. Sheats, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Florida—Laws Relating to Education Enacted by the Florida Legislatures of 1917 and 1919. Compiled by W. N. Sheats, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Idaho—Compilation of Laws pertaining to the State Board of Education and the Educational Institutions of the State of Idaho, Effective April 1, 1919. Idaho Bulletin of Education, Vol. V, No. 7, 1919.
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- Illinois—The School Law of Illinois as Amended by the Fiftieth General Assembly, 1917. Compiled by J. C. Thompson, under the direction of Francis G. Blair, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Illinois—The School Law of Illinois Enacted by the Fifty-first General Assembly, 1919. Issued by Francis G. Blair, Superintendent of Public Instruction (Circular No. 138).
- Indiana—Laws of Indiana Relating to the Public School System, 1917. Prepared under the direction of Howard Ellis, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Indiana—School Laws Enacted by the General Assembly of 1919. A supplement to the School Laws of Indiana, 1917 Edition, 1919. Prepared under the direction of Linnaeus N. Hines, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Iowa—School Laws of Iowa, Edition of 1915. A. M. Deyoe, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Iowa—School Laws of Iowa, from Code of 1897, the Supplement to the Code, 1913, and the Supplemental Supplement, 1915, with the Acts of the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth General Assemblies, 1919. The State of Iowa.
- Iowa—Recent School Legislation, May 23, 1917. State of Iowa, Department of Public Instruction.
- Kansas—Laws Relating to Education, Session of 1919. State of Kansas.

- Department of Education.
- Kansas—Laws Relating to the Common Schools of Kansas, including official opinions and suggestions to school officers, 1920. Compiled under the direction of Lorraine Elizabeth Wooster, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Kentucky—Common School Laws of Kentucky, 1918. V. O. Gilbert, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Kentucky—County School Administration Law, 1920. George Calvin, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Louisiana—Public School Laws of Louisiana and Sanitary Regulations of the State Board of Health. Eleventh Compilation, 1919.
- Louisiana—Public School Laws of Louisiana Enacted by the General Assembly of 1920. (Supplement to the Eleventh Compilation of School Laws).
- Maine—Laws of Maine Relating to Public Schools, 1919.
- Maryland—The Public School Laws of Maryland, as contained in the Code of Public General Laws of 1912 and the Acts of the Assemblies of 1912, 1914, 1916, and 1918. The State Board of Education.
- Maryland—Synopsis of Laws Enacted by the State of Maryland, Legislative Session, 1920. Compiled by Horace E. Flack, Department of Legislative Reference, Baltimore.
- Massachusetts—Revised Laws of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts Relating to Public Instruction, enacted by the Legislature November 21, 1901, to take effect January 1, 1902, with subsequent amendments and additions from 1902 to 1914, inclusive; 1915.
- Massachusetts—Educational Legislation Enacted in 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918. The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Bulletin of the Board of Education, 1918, No. 7 (Whole No. 98).
- Massachusetts—Educational Legislation Enacted in 1919. The Commonwealth of Massachusetts, Bulletin of the Board of Education, 1919, No. 6 (Whole No. 108).
- Michigan—General School Laws, Revision of 1919. Compiled under the supervision of Coleman E. Vaughan, Secretary of State.
- Minnesota—Laws of Minnesota Relating to the Public School System, Including the State Normal Schools and the University of Minnesota, 1919. Prepared under direction of James M. McConnell, Commissioner of Education, and Clifford L. Hilton, Attorney General.
- Mississippi—School Laws of the State of Mississippi, 1918. W. F. Bond, State Superintendent of Education.
- Mississippi—School Laws of the State of Mississippi Enacted by the Legislature of 1920. W. F. Bond, State Superintendent of Education.
- Missouri—Revised School Law of the State of Missouri; Revised Statutes of 1909, Session Acts of 1911, 1913, 1915, and 1917; 1917. Uel W. Lamkin, State Superintendent of Public Schools.
- Missouri—Committee Substitute for House Bill No. 128, Fifty-first General Assembly. An act creating a county school district in each county of the state, . . . (1921).
- Montana—School Laws of the State of Montana, June, 1919. Compiled at the office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Nebraska—The School Laws of Nebraska, 1919 Edition. W. A. Clemmons, Superintendent of Public Instruction.
- Nevada—The School Code, 1919, as Amended. Compiled and issued by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, August, 1919.
- New Hampshire—Laws of New Hampshire Relating to Public Schools, compiled from Public Statutes and Session Laws of 1891-1917, Inclusive; 1917. Department of Public Instruction.
- New Hampshire—An Act in Amendment of the Laws Relating to Public Schools and Establishing a State Board of Education. Approved March 1919; 1919. State of New Hampshire.
- New Jersey—New Jersey School Laws and Rules and Regulations Prescribed by the State Board of Education, etc., 1918. Prepared by the Commissioner of Education.
- New Jersey—Laws of New Jersey, 1919, Chapter 80 and Chapter 81 (Approved April 10, 1919); 1919. McCrellish & Quigley, State Printers.
- New Jersey—Amendments and Supplements to School Law, together with Related Laws, Session of 1919. State of New Jersey, Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 9, May, 1919.
- New Jersey—Amendments and Supplements to School Law, together with Related Laws, Session of 1920. State of New Jersey, Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 9, May, 1920.
- New Mexico—Compilation of School Laws of State of New Mexico, 1919. Jonathan H. Wagner, State Superintendent of Public Instruction.
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